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ABSTRACT

To study internal psychological barriers to women's equity in formerly male education and occupational domains, Matthew's scale of attitudes toward women's roles in society was administered to 294 male and 261 female graduate students pursuing degrees in one of six professional areas, three male-dominated and three traditionally female-dominated. In measuring attitudes toward women's societal role, it was found tht men and women differed in perceptions of appropriate women's roles, perceptions of general male attitudes toward women's roles, interest in child care, support for early socialization of girls as homemakers, and views that parents prefer daughters' early marriages. Men were consistently closer to the traditional, stereotypical position on these scales than women, with one exception--women expressed greater liking for children and the traditionally feminine child care role. Sex differences followed consistent patterns across career groups, and professionals, regardless of gender, differed in attitudes according to their career pursuit. Some attitude differences among career groups did parallel divisions by gender dominance. For example, law, business, and medicine groups expressed lower interest in child care than did those in traditionally feminine professions--social work, education, and nursing. (Author/CSS)

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Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Convention, San Francisco, April, 1979.

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To study internal psychological barriers to women's equity in formerly male educational and occupational domains, Matthew's scale of attitudes toward women's roles in society was administered to 294 male and 261 female graduate students pursuing degrees in one of six professional areas, three male-dominated, and three traditionally feminine. Principal factor analysis and oblique rotation of the data yielded ten significant factors. MANOVA was applied to factor scores. Sex and career group differences in the ten-score attitude profiles were significant at $p < .0001$, with no significant interaction effects. Findings are discussed in relation to prior studies of feminine role perceptions, the male view, and gender-dominant careers.

ATTITUDES OF PROFESSIONAL MEN AND WOMEN TOWARD WOMEN'S ROLES IN SOCIETY

More ancient, more widespread, and more stable than any other type of social differentiation, gender differentiation has been labeled as "the primary division of labor." Found in all recorded political orders and economic systems, this division of labor is characterized by role standards--the aggregate of socially designated behaviors that differentiate between men and women (Holter, 1971; Broverman, et al., 1972).

The pervasive view of women throughout history has been distinguished by expectations of passivity, dependency, submissiveness, and intellectual inferiority to males. However, owing largely to the women's movement, dramatic changes in role expectations for both women and men have been taking place in the last decade with a rapidity unparalleled in history. In this country, federal and state legislation prohibiting sex discrimination has been instrumental in weakening external barriers to women's entry into formerly male educational and occupational domains. Yet equal entry may mean little more than quota-filling. If educational and occupational equity are to be achieved, much more needs to be learned about internal psychological barriers to women's equity--barriers which exist in the minds of women themselves, their parents, significant males, peers, colleagues, educators, employers, and policy makers.

This paper focuses on attitudes toward women's roles in society held by women and their male colleagues pursuing one of six professions. Three of the professions are male-dominated--business, law, and medicine, and three are traditionally feminine pursuits--education, nursing, and

social work. Sex and career group differences will be investigated for several attitudinal themes, among them: (1) preference that women assume traditional roles; (2) consideration of how others view appropriate roles for women; (3) interest in caring for children; (4) esteem for the social position of unmarried men and women; and (5) support for the early socialization of females as homemakers.

BACKGROUND

A special task force reporting to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare offered a very pessimistic picture of work life in America in the 1970's (Work in America, 1973). Citing widespread alienation across many groups of workers, the authors suggested that some of this discontent may stem from a rising expectation for what work-life should offer. Testing this and other propositions about changes in the meaning of work, Veroff (1978) contrasted data from national probability samples of American workers in 1957 and in 1976. He termed "particularly important" the growing tendency for women to own up to dissatisfaction in their work (Veroff, 1978, p. 46).

Cast against this gloomy picture of women's growing dissatisfaction with work-life is the fact of increased labor force participation rates among women. Recent Bureau of Labor Statistics data indicate that women constitute 46.7% of the civilian labor force aged 16 and over (Employment and Earnings Report, April, 1976), but women continue to hold a disproportionate low percentage of higher level professional and managerial positions. A very considerable research literature supports the contention

that social and internal psychological barriers rooted in the dominant stereotype of femininity continue to limit entry into the professions and other prestigious leadership positions to males.

If more, qualified young women are to be assisted in making informed career choices which are economically rewarding and more psychologically satisfying to themselves and to society, then much more needs to be learned about the factors relevant to their vocational choice. In her award-winning monograph on women in male-dominated professions, Ashburn (1977) concluded that "The most significant feature about women's motivation to achieve a position in male-dominated profession is that its instance has been low; for numerous social and psychological reasons, most women have chosen to avoid these high-level jobs" (p. 10). Until recently, "the number of women choosing and maintaining a career in a male-dominated profession may have been so small that it has not been possible to determine any common patterns of motivation" (P. 11).

Not only are available research findings inadequate for theory building, they are based largely on male samples. Furthermore, the data bases for the available findings are limited in their portrayal of up-to-date information, even for men. The historically fleeting period of the last decade has witnessed cataclysmic changes in long-established societal "givens" for proper and correct occupational and social roles for each of the sexes. A shift from the emphasis on brawn to brain power, the mechanization of the home, overpopulation, spiraling divorce rates, and prevailing economic conditions are among the complex factors which

have served to alter the life styles of both sexes, but particularly of women. No longer are women retiring permanently from the work force after marriage, as Strong (1934, p. 129) suggested. They are working longer and later in life. Vetter (1970) noted that the average female's work life expectancy is 25 years, and changes in the "kinder, kirche, kuche" approach to vocational planning are sorely needed.

The research reported in this paper is part of a larger study designed to provide contemporary, comprehensive descriptions on career-relevant (Crites, 1969) "stimulus" variables and psychological "response" variables for men and women (only recently available in numbers sufficiently large for meaningful comparisons between genders and among male-dominated professions) who have progressed to the career development stage which Super and his associates (1963) called the Establishment stage. With respect to attitudes, parental and peer influences on the socialization of women have long been recognized. In addition, many investigators concur that a women's perception of whether men approve of working women, or whether men expect women to center their efforts primarily around the home, influences her aspirations and career planning (Ashburn, 1977; Astin, et al., 1971; Hawley, 1972; Tittle & Dender, 1977).

The importance women place on the attitudes of significant males seems to be acknowledged widely. However, reports conflict on just what are the attitudes of professional men toward women's roles. Lunneborg, et al. (1972) suggested that the long-entrenched sex-role stereotypes may be shifting. Their research revealed that college men were becoming more

concerned with interpersonal relationships and that college women indicated a growing pride in their school and work accomplishments. But Austin (1971, p. 7) noted: "Although the husbands of working wives have more liberated attitudes, professional men in general hold negative attitudes toward professional women who are trying to fulfill the dual role of career woman and homemaker." In turn, Austin's conclusion may contradict Tavris' (1972) finding that men tend to be liberal on issues that really do not touch them very closely.

Horner suggested that a woman's dependence upon another's perception for satisfaction may be dysfunctional: "The expectancy that success in achievement-related situations will be followed by negative consequences arouses fear of success in otherwise achievement-motivated women which then inhibits their performances and levels of aspirations" (1972, p. 1). Matthews, et al. (1964) also suggested that it is the male perception which influences the woman extensively. Their scale, because it measures this perception and other themes that affect a woman's life during her career development process, was applied to measure attitudes toward women's roles in society for the present study.

METHODOLOGY

Variables:

Independent variables for this research include sex and career group. The study of sex differences in attitudes is, of course, a major concern of this research. Yet, while the question of sex refers to the most

fundamental differentiation among human beings, it omits differences among females and among males themselves which are as important as the similarities within each group. This research probes beyond the sexual division of labor to study career group differences between and within sexes.

In many studies of women and work, characteristics or types of women which conceptually fall along a continuum have been dichotomized or polarized to facilitate easier measurement and more economical studies. In regard to the nature and intensity of career aspiration and commitment among women, two polar types have turned up with singular consistency in the research literature on women. Several researchers have classified their female subjects as being either career-oriented or homemaking-oriented (e.g., Edward, 1970; Ginn, 1969; Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958; Johnston, 1973; Rand, 1968; and White, 1959). Rossi (1965) referred to these polar types as "pioneer" and "housewife," while Ginzberg and his associates (1966) spoke of "supportive" women when referring to the housewife or homemaking-oriented women of other studies and "influential" women who resembled the pioneer type or career-oriented type.

Such dichotomous classifications of women have proven valuable in initial, exploratory studies. Results of these investigations have suggested some fruitful lines for more refined research. Yet much confusion, contradiction, and misleading stereotyping have also resulted. Researchers focusing solely on the difference between men and women have obscured

or overlooked a great deal of important diversity within each sex. However, the use of forced dichotomies as classification variables for the study of within sex differences offers only limited potential for the explanation of the diversity within each sex. It would, then, be more in line with reality to allow for several levels of career orientation (F_1, F_2, ... F_n; and M_1, M_2, ... M_n) instead of compressing all women into a single category and all males within another; or even imposing polarized classifications within each sex category.

The present study was designed to enable examination of differences within groups of individuals who fall toward the career-oriented end of the spectrum. Specifically, the study focuses on men and women who have makde substantial commitments to future professional roles as evidenced by their nearing completion of formal graduate school programs in one of the six professional fields selected for study.

The dependence variables for this study are attitudes toward women's roles in society, as measured by the 71-item scale developed by Matthews (1964) who reported internal consistency reliability evidence and discussed the content and construct validation for the scale. Self-administering test kits were used to achieve this data collection.

Subjects:

Subjects constituting the sample for this research were 294 male and 261 female graduate students enrolled in professional degree programs at four Greater Boston universities. The researcher sought participation

from students in required or core courses in order to get samples of students who were more likely to be representative of the general student enrollments in each degree program. A 10-minute oral explanation to potential respondents took place at the beginning or end of regularly scheduled class periods. The researcher assured the students that their responses would be held in confidence and that only group statistics would be reported. Each participant would receive a copy of his/her interest profile as scored from his/her responses on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, another instrument used in the larger study. Volunteers were requested. Percentages of students who agreed to participate by completing and returning the test kits ranged from 80% to 100% in the groups contacted. Return rates ranged from 75% to 100%. Distributions of males and females in each group reflected the pattern of enrollments by sex in those professional programs of the universities.

Data Analysis:

Factor analysis of the 71-item attitude scale was achieved with the SPSS program for the alpha factor solution (Nie, Bent, and Hull, 1977). Oblique rotations were applied. Ten factors with eigenvalues .99 or higher were retained for subsequent interpretation. (The eigenvalue for factor 11 dropped to .89.) Together the first 10 factors accounted for 78.6% of the explained variance.

The LERTAPS (Nelson, 1976) item analysis program was used to obtain factor scores for each individual and to determine the Hoyt internal consistency reliability estimates for each factor. Items with negative loadings were reverse scored. Initial factor scores and reliability

estimates were obtained by summing raw item scores (1-6) for those items loading .3 or higher on a factor. Then, a loading of .4 or higher was used as the criterion to include an item on a factor, and new reliability estimates were obtained. If reliabilities did not suffer, the smaller number of higher loading items was used to comprise each factor. The number of items used and the Hoyt reliability estimates are given in Table 1. Table 2 contains the items themselves and their factor loadings. No item was scored on more than one factor. Most factors were clear, readily interpretable, and conceptually distinct from one another. Only factor 5 was problematic, with a low reliability coefficient (.40) and no items weighting heavily on the factor.

Oblique rotations had been applied because the dimensions included the Matthews scale were expected to be related in real life. The matrix of factor intercorrelations given in Table 3 shows that factor 1 correlated substantially with factor 8 (.62) and with factor 10 (.43). One who favors early socialization of females as homemakers (factor 8) and who believes that wide differences will always exist between men and women (factor 10) should be expected to prefer traditional roles for women. Factors 2 and 6 correlated .38; both factors dealt with perception of the male view of desirable feminine behavior. Several other factor intercorrelations between .2 and .3 should be noted in Table 3. (Second-order analysis of the intercorrelations of the oblique primary factors will be treated in another paper.)

After factor scores were obtained for each individual, a two-way, multivariate analysis of variance was applied to the 10-score attitude profiles to study sex differences, career group differences, and interaction effects.

RESULTS

Table 4 contains a summary of the MANOVA results. Sex differences and career group differences in the multivariate attitude profiles were highly significant with $p < .0001$. Interaction effects were not statistically significant.

Univariate F-ratios and their associated probabilities for main effects only are given in Table 4 for each of the 10 attitude factors. Inspection of the combined means in Table 5 reveals the nature and direction of the sex and career group differences.

Several attitude factors appeared to have contributed to differences in multivariate attitude profiles, but the first factor contributed most substantially. Male and female subjects differed significantly on the view that women should pursue traditional roles (Factor 1, $F(1/543) = 43.96$, $p < .0001$). The professional men in the sample favored women's pursuit of traditional roles more than the professional women, with means of 25.37 and 20.51 respectively on factor 1. However, both group positions were well below the scale midpoint of 42. Differences on this factor were highly significant for career groups as well ($F(10/543) = 10.22$, $p < .0001$).

The business career group was most favorable toward traditional roles for women, followed at a distance by education, nursing, medicine and law, with social work expressing lowest agreement with the view that traditional roles for women are best.

Males and females in the sample differed significantly in their perceptions of whether men prefer traditional roles for women (Factor 2, $F(1/543) = 3.98$, $p < .05$). No career group differences emerged in this factor. It is interesting to note that the males viewed members of their own sex as more favorable toward traditional roles; the women professionals assessed men as having a somewhat more liberated view. The mean values on this factor are noteworthy, 11.41 for males, and 10.90 for females, especially since they are above the scale midpoint of 10.50.

On the factor of interest in caring for children, both sex differences and career group differences were significant, with $F(1/543) = 7.58$, $p < .006$ for the effect of sex, and $F(10/543) = 4.84$, $p < .0003$ for career groups. In consonance with the stereotype that women are more nurturant than men, the women professionals in the sample expressed greater liking for children and child care than their male colleagues. The traditionally feminine career groups, especially nursing and education, scored highest on Factor 3, while male dominated career groups averaged notably lower.

Factor 6 was the next factor showing significant sex differences ($F(1/543) = 20.94$, $p < .0001$). More than the females, males in the sample felt that boys like submissive, subordinate girls. As was the case for

Factor 2, males again ascribed more traditional views to other males than the female professionals would ascribe to males. Career group differences were also found to be significant for this factor ($F(10/543) = 2.65$, $p < .03$). The medical and business groups were in highest agreement with the view that boys like submissive, subordinate girls. The average view for nurses was furthest removed from the medical group's position.

Means on Factor 7, dealing with preference for large families, were virtually identical for males and females, moreover both means fell close to the low end of the scale for that factor. Career group differences were significant for this factor ($F(10/543) = 2.79$, $p < .02$), with nurses averaging highest, followed by educators, and with the remaining groups clustering further down the scale. However, as seen in Table 5, none of the group means approached the scale midpoint of 7.0.

Males expressed significantly greater agreement than females with the view that young girls should be socialized early into the homemaker role, as shown by the significant F ratio for sex differences on Factor 8 ($F(1/543) = 17.21$, $p < .0001$). Career group differences on Factor 8 were also highly significant ($F(10/543) = 11.44$, $p < .0001$). A marked contrast was observed between the business and education groups on the one hand, and lawyers on the other, with lawyers least supportive of early socialization of females as homemakers.

A highly significant sex difference was found for Factor 9 ($F(1/543) = 20.98$, $p < .0001$). Interestingly, the males more than females think parents prefer their daughters to marry early. No significant career group

differences were obtained for this factor.

Factor 10 provides a measure of one's belief that wide differences will always exist between men and women. Both male and female respondent groups averaged close to the midpoint of this scale. Only career group differences were significant ($F(10/543) = 2.81$, $p < .02$). The group means on Factor 10 from Table 5 place the business group highest followed by medicine, nursing, social work, education, and law.

Summary of Results:

In summary of the foregoing results, the measure of attitudes toward women's roles in society encompassed several factors which were conceptually and empirically distinct, as determined by factor analysis. Variance analysis of these multivariate attitude profiles for entering professionals revealed highly significant differences attributable to gender. Men and women differed with respect to their own perceptions of appropriate roles for women, their perceptions of the attitudes held by males-in-general toward women's roles, their interest in caring for children, their suppoet for the early socialization of girls as homemakers, and their views that parents prefer daughters to marry early. The men were consistently closer to the traditional, stereotypical position on these scales than the women, with one exception--the women expressed greater liking for children and the traditionally feminine business of child care.

The variable of career group accounted for additional variance in attitude profiles beyond that attributable to gender. Interaction effects were not significant. In other words, sex differences followed consistent

patterns across career groups, and the professionals regardless of gender were different among themselves in attitudes according to which career they were pursuing. It is important to note as well that the sifnificant attitude differences among career groups did not always follow the lines of male-dominated versus female-dominated careers separations. With respect to preference for traditional roles for women, the business group expressed the most conservative position, but law was more liberal on this issue than the female-dominated professions of nursing and education, and the social work mean fell closest to the liberal end of that scale. A similar rank-ordering of means among career groups was found on the factor of early socialization of females as homemakers. Support for this practice was highest among the business group, followed by education, nursing, medicine, social work and law.

Some of the attitude differences among career groups did parallel divisions by gender dominance. Law, business, and medicine groups expressed lower interest in child care than the traditionally feminine professions--social work, education, and nursing. Again following stereotypical lines, medicine, business, and law ranked higher than social work, education, and nursing in their perception that boys like submissive, subordinate girls. On the issue of family size, nursing and education expressed the most pro-natalist positions, but the social work mean fell to the opposite side, beyond those of the male-dominated career group positions. However, attention to relative differences on this issue of family size may be misleading.

Relative positions of men versus women and relative standings of the

career groups on the measured attitudes have been addressed. However, it seems important to examine these mean scores in the context of the possible range of score values for each scale as well, especially for the measures of preference for large families and preference for traditional roles for women. Regarding family size, men and women in all six professional groups express substantial disagreement with the idea that large families are best. In their views about what roles women should assume, the professional men were significantly more traditional than the professional women, but even the men's mean represents a position of strong disagreement with the notion that traditional roles for women are best.

DISCUSSION

Working outside the home in larger numbers that ever before, women continue to be over-represented in a constricted range of occupational classifications at the low end of the spectrum, with lower levels of prestige, power, personal satisfaction, and monetary reward. Several theorists and researchers studying the career development of women have indicated that removing external varriers to women's equity is not enough. Internal social psychological barriers dealing with underlying attitudes and normative expectations conveyed by relevant reference groups need to be acknowledged and addressed. These are barriers which exist in the minds of the women themselves, their parents, significant males, age peers, colleagues, and others.

The present study informs these needs by locating the positions of entering professional women in selected occupational groups on several dimensions of feminine role perceptions and by contrasting their perceptions

with those of their male colleagues. Results of the present study male also contribute important information for the design of new studies of career development and the measurement of sex role attitudes.

Not surprisingly, the women subjects of the present study averaged very low on the factor of preference for traditional roles for women. The importance of feminine role perceptions to women's vocational choice has been established by several researchers who contrasted career-oriented and homemaking-oriented women (Hoyt & Kennedy, 1958; McKenzie, 1972; Rand, 1968; White, 1959). It would seem that to varying degrees the entering professional women of the present study have largely overcome those internal psychological barriers limiting women to stereotypical feminine roles, by virtue of the fact that these women were nearing the completion of graduate degree programs for their respective professions.

It might have been expected that women pursuing male-dominated professions would express even less acceptance of traditional roles for women than those women subjects entering female-dominated professions. However, the significant career group differences in the present study did not follow this separation by gender dominance in occupations. Several researchers (Almquist, 1974; Crawford, 1978; Nagely, 1971; Tangri, 1972; Wolkon, 1972) have used sex role attitudes, self-concept variables, and other promising measures in an effort to differentiate between pioneer women pursuing male-dominated careers and traditional women following traditionally feminine occupations, but with inconclusive and sometimes puzzling results, perhaps because that dichotomous classification system obscures levels of gender dominance in the professions studies. Harren (1978) presented convincing

evidence that the proportion of males to females employed in each occupation be used as a more sensitive and representative continuous variable in studies of gender-dominant career choices. He further showed that dominance index values reflect both the objective distribution of workers by gender (.95) as well as the subjective perception of students of these fields as masculine, feminine, or neutral (.91).

It seems clear that using the dominance index values for occupations or majors to study widely representative samples is preferable to studying extreem groups or to using a crude, dichotomous classification of gender dominance. However, the focus on gender dominance in careers may be detracting from other salient aspects of those occupational pursuits. The present study suggests that it is preferable still to use several homogeneous categories of occupations selected from a broad range of careers; career group differences do not always follow the patterns suggested by gender dominance. For example, in expressing the lowest relative position of any group on the factor that wide differences will always exist between men and women, the law group may be reflecting their value for equal rights before the law. Scoring significantly higher on this scale, the medical group may be reflecting its professional focus on biologically rooted sex differences.

Another implication from the present study for the design of future studies of feminine career development is to include men. Obviously, areas of disparity, overlap, and congruence between males and females on a wide variety of work-related characteristics can be studies appropriately only if women, and men, are included as subjects. Much prior research on women and

work has included only women, precluding the possibility of determining if and how women are different from men on career-salient variables. The present research revealed important sex differences on some attitudinal dimensions, but it also found that for other attitude factors, men and women pursuing a given profession were more like each other than they were like persons of the same sex in different career groups.

As measured by the Matthews scale of attitudes toward women's roles, considerations of the male view and perceptions of parental preferences emerged as distinct factors, significantly different from one's own views about appropriate roles for women. Several prominent researchers have noted the importance of the attitudes of males for women's career choice (Ashburn, 1977; Bardwick, 1971; Horner, 1972; Rossi, 1965; Tittle & Denker, 1977). Matthews, et al., (1964) argued that consideration of the male view influenced women extensively. Their findings provided the cirtical basis for this researcher's choice of the Matthews scale, despite its age, over the widely-used Attitude Toward Women (ATW) scale offered by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1973). The ATW purportedly determines the attitudes of male or female respondents toward the rights and roles of women in modern society, but not how these individuals perceive the male view of appropriate roles for women. A new scale should be developed, updating the most promising factors from the Matthews instrument and building upon the extensive data base profided by the ATW. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1975), a measure of self-attributed masculinity, femininity, and androgony which became available after data collection was undertaken for the present study(1973-74), might be used as a complement to the new instrument.

Sampling for the present study was both a strength and a weakness. Much existing research on occupational choice processes has been based on the vocational decision-making processes of adolescents and college students. Expressed choice rather than actual choice has served as the criterion in such studies. The present study focused on subjects who have already chosen their career fields and have made substantial commitments to those decisions, as evidenced by their proximity to the completion of advanced, graduate-level programs, many with internships or field experiences for their respective professions. Initial volunteer and final return rates for subjects asked to participate in this research were strikingly high--75% to 100% of the groups contacted. However, the study sought both men and women in male-dominated and female-dominated professions. By definition then, minority sex subjects were underrepresented in the sample, and some cell n's, most especially that for men in nursing, were unsatisfactorily low, with attending concerns about the consequences of violating assumptions for the tests employed.

Much research has been focused on why women have not chosen and maintained high level careers, particularly in male-dominated professions. Individual choice and vocational decision-making concepts have not been useful for the study of women's career development, as they have been for men's. Clearly, situational and environmental factors are important factors conditioning the process of occupational choice for women. As Psathas (1968) argued, women do not choose in a vacuum; they are influenced by a host of variables in the social setting which need to be explicated. The present study contributes to the growing body of evidence pointing to the importance

of women's own sex-role attitudes, and those of significant others, for women's career choice. In turn, this research lends further justification to interventions seeking to modify sex role attitudes of women, but of men as well.

Suggestions for the instrumentation and design of future research on sex role attitudes have been addressed in this paper. Hopefully more and more women will overcome internal barriers to occupational equity, and sampling for future studies of sex role attitudes among a wide range of occupational groups will not be hampered by occupational segregation by sex. The real benefit would be expanded career options, greater freedom of choice, for women and for men.

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TABLE 1

Summary of Factor Analysis and Item Analysis

of the Matthews Attitude Scale

	Factor	Eigenvalue (rotated)	% of Variance	No. of Items	Hoyt rel.
1.	Prefer traditional women.	10.65	33.1	12	.90
2.	Men prefer trad. women.	4.02	12.5	3	.68
3.	Like caring for children.	2.00	6.2	3	.79
4.	Esteem singles' status.	1.88	5.8	4	.66
5.	Esteem self-sufficient women.	1.39	4.3	4	.40
6.	Boys like submissive girls.	1.38	4.0	2	.65
7.	Prefer large families.	1.31	3.5	2	.64
8.	Support early socialization.	1.00	3.1	3	.80
9.	Parents prefer early marriage.	1.00	3.1	2	.75
10.	Believe always sex differences.	.99	3.0	2	.64

TABLE 2

Rotated Oblique Factor Loadings for Those Items Used on Each Factor

Item		Loading
FACTOR 1:	Prefer women's traditional role.	
7.	Girls should have as many chances in life as boys.	-.49
8.	A woman's true happiness lies in her home and family.	.41
10.	Women should seek feminine jobs (for example, nurse, teacher, secretary).	.64
22.	A woman should be gentle and quiet.	.47
24.	Woman's place is in the home.	.65
26.	Women should be encouraged to go into any occupation they want to.	-.52
28.	Women should be willing to give up their career for marriage.	.59
33.	Colleges should prepare girls for homemaking more than they do.	.45
34.	A girl should be married before she is 25 years old.	.58
45.	Women were intended to be wives and mothers, not career women.	.66
57.	Women are too independent today.	.57
65.	Women should accept their role in life as wives and mothers.	.48
FACTOR 2:	Men prefer traditional women.	
42.	Men think women should settle down and get married.	.64
53.	Most women think that men dislike career women.	.60
61.	Men think a woman can't manage a home and a career.	.64
FACTOR 3:	Like caring for children.	
2.	It is fun to take care of children.	.73
13.	Most young children are lovable and interesting.	.76
23.	Most young children are boring pests.	-.77
FACTOR 4:	Esteem for social position of single persons.	
16.	There is no real social position for an unmarried woman.	-.40
51.	Unmarried women have their own social position.	.65
56.	There is no real social position for an unmarried man.	-.46
69.	Unmarried men have their own social position.	.75

TABLE 2 (cont.)

Item	Loading
FACTOR 5: Esteem for self-sufficient women.	
9. A woman with a successful career ought to delay marriage.	.39
12. Girls should go to college mainly to prepare for a profession.	.43
49. Most women envy unmarried women who have careers.	.49
50. It is old-fashioned for girls to be dependent.	.36
FACTOR 6. Boys like submissive, subordinate girls.	
68. Boys like dumb girls who are pretty.	.55
71. Boys like quiet, meek little girls.	.74
FACTOR 7: Prefer large families.	
14. In these days it is best to have only one or two children.	-.73
21. Large families are best.	.69
FACTOR 8: Support early socialization of females as homemakers.	
30. Little girls ought to play with dolls.	.79
37. Little girls ought to be encouraged to play house.	.81
39. Girls' mothers should teach them to be good housekeepers.	.56
FACTOR 9: Parents prefer early marriage for daughters.	
31. Most mothers usually prefer to have their daughters marry early.	.82
36. Most fathers usually prefer to have their daughters marry early.	.71
FACTOR 10: Believe that sex differences will exist always.	
46. Men and women think differently.	.60
64. There will always be wide differences between men and women.	.61

TABLE 3

Matrix of Oblique Factor Intercorrelations[a]

Factor[b]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1		.04	.06	-.09	-.04	.20	.21	.39	.18	.25
2	.16		-.09	-.01	.04	.12	.01	.02	.31	.10
3	.06	-.06		.04	-.11	-.07	.13	.02	-.15	.02
4	-.16	-.08	.04		.10	-.04	-.13	-.05	-.04	-.03
5	-.04	.14	-.14	.11		.07	-.05	-.01	.12	-.05
6	.27	.38	-.17	-.10	.07		.17	.10	.23	.15
7	.29	.04	.13	-.18	-.07	.12		.21	-.03	.15
8	.62	.10	.10	-.03	-.07	.17	.18		-.12	.28
9	.11	.25	-.13	-.07	.15	.25	-.03	-.00		.10
10	.43	.23	.03	-.03	-.06	.25	.14	.30	.10	

[a]Correlations below the diagonal are based on factor scores obtained by summing raw scores for items loading .4 on each factor.

[b]Factor names and items contributing to those factors are given in Table 2.

TABLE 4

Tests of Significance for Sex by Career Group Multivariate Analysis of Variance Using Ten Attitude Factors as Dependent Variables

Source of Variation	df	F(Wilks Lambda criterion)	p less than
Sex	10/534	9.77	.0001
Career group	50/2439	2.91	.0001
Sex X career group	50/2439	1.22	NS

Univariate F Tests

Variable	Source of Variation			
	Sex		Career group	
	F(1/543)	p<	F(10/534)	p<
1. Prefer traditional women.	43.96	.0001	10.22	.0001
2. Men prefer trad. women.	3.98	.05	.78	.57
3. Like caring for children.	7.58	.006	4.84	.0003
4. Esteem singles' status.	2.58	.11	.23	.95
5. Esteem self-sufficient women.	2.86	.10	1.78	.11
6. Boys like submissive girls.	20.94	.0001	2.65	.03
7. Prefer large families.	.005	.94	2.79	.02
8. Support early socialization.	17.21	.0001	11.44	.0001
9. Parents prefer early marriage.	20.98	.0001	.70	.62
10. Believe always sex differences.	2.55	.11	2.81	.02

TABLE 5

Mean Scores by Sex and Career Group on Ten Attitude Factors

	Factor (range)[a]	Sex		Career Group					
		Male	Female	Bus	Law	Med	Nur	S.W.	Educ
		n=294	n=261	m=71 f=10	m=75 f=21	m=72 f=27	m=2 f=79	m=26 f=57	m=48 f=67
1.	Trad. role *+ (12--72)	25.37	20.51	27.28	21.11	22.54	23.98	19.39	24.30
2.	Male view * (3--18)	11.41	10.90	11.41	11.56	11.48	10.52	10.97	11.01
3.	Child care *+ (3--18)	14.00	14.67	13.76	13.45	13.88	15.34	14.43	15.00
4.	Sing. status (4--24)	19.27	18.79	19.05	19.26	19.29	19.00	18.91	18.78
5.	S-suff wom. (4--24)	12.73	13.19	13.31	13.23	12.27	13.22	12.60	13.08
6.	Boys/girls *+ (2--12)	5.02	4.22	5.12	4.58	5.30	3.83	4.49	4.47
7.	Large famil + (2--12)	4.52	4.53	4.44	4.26	4.31	5.14	4.16	4.84
8.	Early soc. *+ (3--18)	10.29	9.18	10.84	8.41	9.41	10.01	9.20	10.69
9.	Parents/marr * (2--12)	6.62	5.73	6.62	6.60	6.41	5.41	6.01	6.11
10.	Sex differ + (2--12)	7.52	7.18	8.07	6.86	7.72	7.48	7.17	7.03

*A significant univariate F for sex differences was found for this factor.

+A significant univariate F for career group differences was found.

[a]The range of possible score values on each factor is given in parentheses.